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ABSTRACT

Although more women are entering positions of educational administration in Canada, men hold a greater variety of administrative positions than do women, and men occupy those positions in greater numbers. This paper presents findings of a study that examined the relationship between the selected educational administrative positions of principal, vice-principal, department head, guidance counselor, subject coordinator, superintendent, assistant superintendent, and school supervisor based on gender. The study reviewed the membership data for the New Brunswick Teachers' Association (NBTA) for the years 1992-96. The findings show a significant relationship between gender and position in the Anglophone teaching profession in New Brunswick. The data indicate very little movement toward gender equity. Fourteen tables are included. (Contains 25 references.) (LMI)

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A Comparison by Gender of Selected Educational Administration Positions Represented by NBTA Membership in the Province of New Brunswick

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Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the Mid-South Educational Research Association

Tuscaloosa, AL, November 6-8, 1996

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Abstract

The purpose of this study is to determine whether there is a relationship between the selected educational administration positions of principal, vice-principal, department head, guidance counsellor, subject coordinator, superintendent, assistant superintendent, and school supervisor based on gender by reviewing the data reflective of the New Brunswick Teachers' Association (NBTA) membership inclusive of the years 1992 to 1996. The literature suggests the gender gap in educational administration positions is decreasing. The researcher wants to determine if teachers in the Anglophone sector of New Brunswick are representative of this trend.

As one peruses the literature, one is left with a mixed message regarding the mobility of women into administrative positions in public education. Is gender equity reflected in administrative hirings? Are programs such as leadership training, mentorships, and affirmative action impacting on the historical imbalance in responsibility in public education?

Thomas, as cited in Marshall (1992), suggests there are trends toward greater acceptance of women as equals to men, more women entering graduate work in education, support of women by schools of education, and the acceptance of women as full partners in family economics (pp. 103-104). If this is indeed accurate, how does one explain Young's (1994) statement that "in Canada even today, men hold a wider variety of administrative positions pertaining to schools than do women, and men occupy those positions in greater numbers, although 60% of Canada's elementary-secondary school teachers are women" (p. 356). On a more localized level, Gill (1993) reports that in the Anglophone sector of the New Brunswick education system, "women educational administrators make up approximately 25% of all administrators" while simultaneously reporting 61% of the NBTA membership is women (p. 1).

There is no question that some equalizing in educational administrative positions is occurring. The query is, however, does this movement reflect equity or is it parsimonious? As one considers the remainder of this report, reflect on these words:

"after two decades of good intentions, it is hard to dispute that the facts demonstrate minimal advancement for women inside the profession in those domains controlled by external decision-makers" (Robertson, 1993, p. 44).

Statement of Problem

The purpose of this study is to determine whether there is a relationship between educational administrative positions in public education and gender. The specific educational administrative positions being referenced in this study are principals, vice-principals, department heads, guidance counsellors, subject coordinators, superintendents, assistant superintendents, and school supervisors.

Kaufman (1993) reports the following studies as representative of the myriad of work being reported on various aspects of educational administration: Judith Rosener's 1990 study involving 355 female and 101 male leaders who were matched for position and size of organization in an attempt to profile the typical female leader (p. 113); Ann Gregory's review of literature on gender differences, specifically considering personality, motivation, and leadership, concluding that the perception persists that "women lack the personality qualities important for managers" (p. 113); and the work of Ann-Marie Rizzo and Carmen Mendez who compared the results of studies based on trait, style, sex differences, leadership behaviour, and leadership effectiveness concluding that "assertive behavioural

strategies remain one of the few characteristics distinguishing males from females" (p. 114). In considering the results of these previous studies, this study will attempt to determine the relationship between educational administrative positions and gender, based on a numerical compilation of males and females in various educational administrative positions.

Significance of the Study

In the quest for answers to the question, "Is there a relationship between educational administrative positions and gender," one must systematically investigate the research in such areas as educational administrative careers, the role played by gender, leadership characteristics, barriers to administrative careers, and any related factors which might explain any significant gender imbalance in educational administrative positions.

Robertson (1993) suggests that "women have increased their qualifications and experiences, their aspirations are rising, and their expertise is being utilized inside their own organizations. Women's leadership styles are being endorsed . . . Each of these factors is related to leadership and together they might suggest that a free-market approach to leadership appointments would eradicate the need for special measures to advance women" (p. 44). It is, therefore, the goal of this study to address any identified patterns of gender imbalance in educational administrative positions in public education in New Brunswick.

How can women develop administrative careers?

Developing a career path for any individual is not an easy task. For women, however, career paths aimed at an administrative career have often met obstacles resulting in delayed advancement or alternative routes being undertaken. Why are there so few women leaders in schools or in administrative positions in general? Do women and men tend to enter occupations that differ in prestige? Does the gender composition of occupations implicitly affect their rated prestige in the absence of specifications of the gender--identity of occupational incumbents? Figures reported by Robertson (1993) indicate in 1986/87 across Canada the composition of principalships, vice-principalships, and department heads was 25% male teachers and 6% female teachers (p. 22). Further, Robertson relates that 31% of male administrators indicated when they entered the teaching profession they expected to attain an educational administrative position within ten years. Only 10% of female administrators held the same expectation (p. 74).

Whatever one reads in this area, there is one recurring theme: the absence of adequate research on women and occupations. Much of the literature to date has tended to concentrate on the absence of women from leadership positions rather than on the contributions that women in such positions have made. The outcome of this process has been research done predominately with males. Findings from such research are automatically overlooked and concerns of particular interest to women have been downplayed.

The result has been gaps and biases in intervention programs that fail to address women's needs.

Specific problem with some previous research has been the lack of opportunity to interview or include women in the study or questionnaire. An example was a study done by Janice Grow Maienze (1989) on characteristics of superintendents. Even including all available female superintendents did not allow for compilation of complete data. Maienze did address mobility as a major obstacle for women. Mobility is dependent on high opportunity, high power, and high representation. Opportunity is being in a place where one can be noticed by others in the organization, having access to necessary information, and having the ear of those in power. Power is the ability to gather resources, to reallocate and use those resources effectively, and to get things done. Representation refers to the degree to which one individual is represented in the organization by others like him/her (p. 61).

This study (Maienze, 1989), using equal numbers of females and males, found the following characteristics in common: (a) personal career aspirations, (b) education level, (c) work experience, (d) strong alliances, (e) early leadership qualities exhibited, (f) not reared in the traditional manner, (g) exposure in professional organizations, and (h) goals other than teaching

The feminocentric critique, as outlined by Owens (1991), would not dispute these characteristics; however, feminocentrism would suggest that men and women do experience the world in different ways (Peitchinis, 1989). There is a different

socialization process for males than for females. Males tend to move faster through the staff/line structure than females. Females tend to remain longer in staff positions. The outcome of this time span difference is reflected in the characteristics females/males bring to the administrative position and the approaches used once he/she is there (Aburdene and Naisbitt, 1992; Chaffins and Forbes, 1995; Clark, 1995). Women in administrative positions tend to be older than men in the same positions. Both females and males exhibit early involvement in activities showing leadership qualities. For females these activities tended to be social: yearbook, newspapers, student councils, etc. For males these activities tended to be team sports.

Research done by Ahmed found that women did equally well in management as men. Females showed high functional similarity, equivalent frames of reference, mastery of essential skills and increased self-confidence after a few years in management. They have just as high a success orientation but employ different skills to achieve success, such as expressive behaviour and interpersonal relations. As has been reiterated, "theories and concepts emerging solely from a male conscience may be irrelevant for the female experience and inadequate for explaining female behaviour" (Shakeshaft, 1987, p. 323). Only when women are judged by female-oriented research will a true and honest picture be presented.

This theory is supported by such studies as that conducted by Seay and Chance (1995-96) involving 19 female elementary principals from a southwestern state who held a superintendent's certificate. The results of this study indicated these women were influenced in the pursuit of their careers by the attitude of their parents toward education (75%) and encouragement by others (71%). They felt their best preparation for educational administrative positions was academic preparation. Finally, 82% of the women interviewed had personally experienced gender bias or felt it existed.

A NASSP study (Clark, 1995) presented the following portrait of women middle level principals: (a) being 40 or older when receiving their first principalship, (b) holding a principalship position for nine or fewer years, (c) being in their current principalship position three years or less, (d) having ten years or more of teaching experience, (e) earning an undergraduate degree in elementary education or the humanities, and (f) earning a graduate degree in educational administration (p. 35).

What role does gender play in the assignment of administrative positions?

Gender must be addressed in any study of administrative position and administrative hiring. Gender is a cultural term and has tremendous influence on behaviour, perceptions, and effectiveness. Gender and gender expectations may partially determine how supervisors interact with those they supervise.

Women and men communicate differently and they listen for different information. For example, Charol Shakeshaft (1987, p. 334) reports that both men and women value competency and trust but they give each a different priority. Women place competency first and trust next. For men the placement is reversed. In past research this would portray women negatively instead of simply viewing such comments as a normal outcome from two different perspectives.

Yeakey (1986, p. 111) defines discrimination as "being judged according to group ascription as opposed to individual performance." The sundry forms of discrimination, as outlined by Peitchinis (1989) are inclusive of "the tendency to require higher educational and experience qualifications from discriminated groups, the use of biased instruments and procedures in the determination of potential for employment, for promotion, and for the assignment of work responsibilities, and outright discrimination based on age, marital status, physical appearance, and colour of skin" (p. 31).

In another form of discrimination, Phillips and Phillips suggest systemic discrimination reflects the "setting of hiring standards or policies that exclude most members of specific groups from employment in specific occupations or which relegates them to lower-pay job rungs" (1993, p. 63). A third classification of discrimination referenced as statistical discrimination occurs when "employers resist hiring any specific group of workers for a job or type of job because they believe

that members of that group are more likely to have certain behavioural characteristics that reduce their long-term economic benefit to the employer (Phillips and Phillips, 1993, p. 64). Finally, Chaffins and Forbes (1995) indicate cultural stereotypes "suggest males are intellectually superior to women, are more emotionally stable and are more achievement-oriented and assertive than women" (p. 381).

In the 1940s the theory movement in educational administration used concepts from the social sciences. The focus was on structural authority, neglecting unauthorized power, competing interests, and degrees of external and internal control of underrepresented subordinate groups. The machismo factor (Yeakey, p. 119) focused overwhelmingly on the interests and achievements of men, confined women to particular stereotypical areas or defined women primarily by their relations to men, focused on men as the subjects of research but unquestioningly generalized their findings and their models to women, and valued typical male behavioural characteristics more highly than typical female characteristics.

Charol Shakeshaft and Irene Nowell (Owen, 1991, p. 92) made specific mention of Jacob Getzel and Egon Guba's social systems model, Fred Fiedler's contingency theory of leadership model, and Abraham H. Maslow's theory of human motivation. According to Shakeshaft and Nowell, these systems ignored women and the whole issue of role conflict. These theories speculated about women's organizational behaviour and contained patronizing views. The

major concern of such research is that it has fostered the following systemic barriers: (a) the belief that not many women were qualified to assume major responsibilities (Corfe and Skinner, 1988; Restine, 1993); (b) lack of interest or unconscious disinterest in recognizing and promoting women leaders (Marshall, 1992); (c) habitual inability to recruit and support women leaders (Corfe and Skinner, 1988; Kaplan and Bean, 1976; Restine, 1993); (d) tendency of management to select and promote people like them (usually males) (Kaplan and Bean, 1976; Restine, 1993); (e) isolation of women administrators (Marshall, 1992); and (f) tendency of women to compare themselves with an ideal leadership (usually viewed as male) (Kaplan and Bean, 1976; Marshall, 1992).

For females, this supports the position that sex-role stereotypes and sex-role socialization diminish the probability that women will actively seek managerial positions or that organizations will be receptive to those who do. Often the outcome is what is referred to as cognitive dissonance theory or cognitive consistency theory (Stockard, 1979, p. 85) where people engage in behaviour that is inconsistent with their attitudes. They develop a rationale for this behaviour by adopting attitudes that are more consistent with their actual actions. Laws alone will not create substantial changes. The most efficient way to alter people's attitudes may be to first change their behaviour.

Neither affirmative action programs nor changing generations will automatically result in less public prejudice toward women

administrators. If attitude change is to occur, women must be hired specifically for the more powerful line positions as well as for staff positions. "Assuming that men's reality should establish the norm against which women are measured implies that women are atypical and should change to conform to the male model" (Briskin and McDermott, 1993, p. 12).

What future directions are possible if gender imbalances are to be adequately addressed?

Two critical areas to address if there is to be any recognizable future change in the role of women in administration are the search process and the selection process for administrative staff. A 1984 American education study by Marshall (reported in Clark, 1995) reported 55% of the principalships in 1928 were held by women. By the 1980s less than 10% of the principalships were held by women. Networking needs must address control over policy that affects one's life and the promotion of quality and excellence, not inequality and discrimination. There must be less concern for "fitting in" and more concern for a person's skills, accomplishments, and vision. In summation, Peitchinis (1989) proposes that "from an economic standpoint, the most negative form of discrimination is the assignment to women of work activities that underutilize their productive capacities" (p. 26).

It is impossible to read any literature on women in administration without encountering references to Rosabeth Moss

Kanter and in particular to her book Men and Women of the Corporation. Written in 1977, this book obviously has taken much strength from the happenings of this era. Kanter noted that most women in administration found their management opportunities in low uncertain, non-discretionary positions. Women were classified as incomprehensible and unpredictable. It was assumed they did not have the dedication of men to their work or they had conflicting loyalties. Women constantly experienced role conflict. As a woman rose administratively, she was likely to find fewer and fewer female peers. It was, therefore, often necessary for a woman to engage a mentor in order to obtain career advancement. It was extremely difficult for women to achieve positions of power and people who have authority without system power are powerless.

Research conducted by Adkinson in 1981 (Seay and Chance, 1995-96) provided the following findings as justification for the lack of representation of women in administrative positions: (a) socialization and stereotyping (Chaffins and Forbes, 1995), (b) mobility within the career, (c) organizational structure (Blackmore and Kenway, 1993), and (d) power and women's status within society. Assumptions were that women would abuse power because they were too jealous, took things too personally, supervised too closely, and found more fault. Those women who were most successful were slightly older than their male peers, had strong technical backgrounds, and had previous experiences as tokens among male peers. Morrison, White, and Velsor (1992)

intimate "women experience the special hoops and hoopla that they do in management because executive women and men have been perceived as more different from each other than they really are. Mounting evidence indicates that when careers are matched women are remarkably similar to men in their characteristics, abilities, and motives" (p. 69).

Current research is the most productive way to enhance the future of administrative thought and action and to eliminate gender specific attitudes. Ideas about participation need to be enlarged by conceptions of power and opportunity. There needs to be an increase in shared influence over decisions. Policies, affirmative action and equal employment will not work as long as individual models of behaviour and change remain constant. Self-improvement programs for women and self-examination programs for men need to be put in place. Organizations need to change to open opportunity channels and decentralize power. Organizations need to become involved in improving the quality of life and considering the human consequences and should have an interest in effective behaviour. The entire job structure needs revamping. Jobs should be redesigned, include a job description and a list of competencies, and new jobs should be developed to close the gap between different internal labour markets. Job rotation, project management, and decentralization will add strength to all these attempts.

Moving from generalizing about organizations to specifying about educational administration, the literature attempts to

clarify women's role in positions of responsibility. The results of a study conducted by Prolman in 1982 (reported in Clark, 1995) indicate that women "make their occupational choice earlier than men but get their first principalship considerably later" (p. 36). Why are women not administering schools in greater numbers than currently being reported? Marshall (1992) suggests discriminatory practices, women's self-imposed limits, societal traditions and/or norms, and the changing character of school administration (p. 104). A report by the Canadian Teachers' Federation (Robertson, 1993) indicates women teachers have fewer years of professional preparation than men teachers and women are less likely to pursue studies in educational administration (p. 9).

What can women do to address these issues? Skinner and Robinson (as reported in Corpe and Skinner, 1988) outline the following strategies necessary for both women and the organizational structure in order to foster a paradigm shift: (a) training for higher status, (b) training regarding attitudes and practices, (c) development of personnel policies, and (d) organizational development such as experiments in work roles and changes in structures and management approaches (p. 26).

Many of the factors of inequality in the work place and job structuring have led to the creation of stress, both for males and females. Factors such as task characteristics, work overload, work schedules, social relationships, economic rewards, and organizational factors can and must be addressed if changes in

the work force are really going to make a difference. A more suitable work environment is created when the employee participates in decision-making, when organizations place mental and physical well-being as the main occupational health goal, and when there is active employee involvement in changing the work place. Women have a responsibility to articulate career goals, management has the responsibility of encouraging and fostering opportunities for women with potential management capabilities. "Advances across Canada since 1988, with some notable exceptions, have not shifted philosophically from the position that the under-utilization of women in leadership positions is undesirable, that barriers should be removed, and school boards should set medium- and long-term goals to access change in women's participation in attaining professional goals" (Robertson, 1993, p. 43).

The Study Population

In order to study the gender composition, specific educational administrative positions, as outlined in Table 1, reflecting the New Brunswick Teachers' Association (NBTA) membership were utilized. Any figures represented in this study reflect the Anglophone membership of the NBTA for the school years 1992-93, 1993-94, 1994-95, and 1995-96. Figures in Table 1 are restricted to the educational administrative positions of principal, vice-principal, department head, guidance counsellor,

subject coordinator, superintendent, assistant superintendent, and school supervisor for the year 1995-1996.

Procedures for Collecting Data

A perusal of Table 1 indicates the information utilized in this study is an accumulation of specific educational administrative positions together with a breakdown of numbers by gender and percentage. The information for this analysis was gleaned from the NBTA membership database for the school years encompassing 1992 through 1996. The information was initially reported by individual teachers on a Active Membership Registration document, a copy of which is contained in Appendix A.

Since no information was distributed regarding teacher identity, it was not necessary to obtain any consensual documentation. Verbal permission together with assistance in compiling the information was obtained from the Director of Administration and Finance, NBTA.

Treatment of Data

The hypothesis for this study is that there is no relationship between educational administrative positions and gender in the Anglophone teacher membership for the school years 1992 to 1996 inclusive. The method used to test this relationship is Chi Square, a statistical test of significance used to determine whether frequency differences have occurred on the

basis of chance. Chi Square is a nonparametric test using discrete, mutually exclusive categories.

The independent variables tested in this study are gender (males and females) and eight educational administration positions of responsibility (principal, vice-principal, department head, guidance counsellor, subject coordinator, superintendent, assistant superintendent, and school supervisor).

Results

Analysis of the results of the Chi Square as run on the statistical package Number Cruncher, indicates one would reject the null hypothesis at a=.05 level of significance. There is a statistically significant relationship (Chi Square=23.2217, df=7, p=.0016) between gender and educational administrative positions of responsibility.

In order to better understand the interpretation of the Chi Square results, Tables 2, 3, 4, 5 outline the proportional breakdown of each educational administrative position by gender for the separate years of 1992/93, 1993/94, 1994/95, and 1995/96. These same proportional representations are depicted in Tables 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 12, and 13 and illustrate the relationship between gender and the specific educational administrative position of principal, vice-principal, department head, guidance counsellor, subject coordinator, superintendent, assistant superintendent, and school supervisor for the combined years 1992-1996.

The reader will note the following analysis of data as reflected on each table:

(a) Table 6 indicates the gender gap for principals is decreasing, moving from .80 for males and .20 for females in 1992/93 to .72 for males and .28 for females in 1995/96

(b) Table 7 indicates the gender gap for vice-principals is decreasing, moving from .68 for males and .32 for females in 1992/93 to .64 for males and .36 for females in 1995/96

(c) Table 8 indicates the gender gap for department heads is decreasing, moving from .75 for males and .25 for females in 1992/93 to .72 for males and .28 for females in 1995/96

(d) Table 9 indicates the gender gap for guidance counsellors was equal at .50 in 1994/95 and has moved apart in 1995/96 as reflected in .49 for males and .51 for females

(e) Table 10 indicates the gender gap for subject coordinators was equal at .50 in 1994/95 and has significantly separated in 1995/96 as reflected in .72 for males and .28 for females

(f) Table 11 indicates there has been no movement in the gender gap for superintendents, remaining constant at .75 for males and .25 for females

(g) Table 12 indicates the gender gap for assistant superintendents is widening, moving from .81 for males and .19 for females in 1992/93 to .83 for males and .17 for females in 1995/96

(h) Table 13 indicates the gender gap for school supervisors had been decreasing from 1992/93 to 1993/94, but widened in

1994/95 to .68 for males and .32 for females and remained constant for 1995/96 at these same proportions

The literature suggests the gender gap in educational administrative positions is decreasing. This has been substantiated in the results reflected for principals, vice-principals, and department heads. The position of guidance counsellors appears to be reflecting a role reversal, moving from a position where there were more males in this role for 1992/93 to a position where males/females were equally represented in 1993/94 and 1994/95 to a current position of higher representation of females. The position of subject coordinators is another unusual representation where one sees a closing of the gender gap in 1994/95 to a rather substantial increase in the gender gap in 1995/96. This would appear counter to what is reflected in the literature.

Table 14 represents an analysis of the Chi Square results based on observed and expected frequency of gender by educational administrative position. A review of the standardized residual column of Table 14 indicates male guidance counsellors (5.1) and female guidance counsellors (10.4) are likely contributing to the reported significance. Although it is usual practice to collapse any cell containing fewer than 5 frequencies, the researcher deemed it important to show the results of each of the eight positions of responsibility and not lose any by collapsing the cells.

Discussion

In testing the hypothesis that there is no relationship between gender based on educational administrative positions in the Anglophone teaching sector in the province of New Brunswick, the results indicated there is a significant relationship between gender and position of responsibility in the Anglophone teaching profession in New Brunswick as reflected in the data obtained from the NBTA for the years 1992-1996.

The total membership in 1992-93 was 5 757 (2 097 males and 3 660 females). By 1995-96 the total membership has decreased to 5 428 (1 901 males and 3 527 females). At the time of reporting, the NBTA membership was comprised of 65.0% women and 35.0% men. Since 1992 the number of female principals has increased by 21 for a total of 74. The percentage of male principals is now 71.5%, while women hold 28.5% of the positions. The number of female vice-principals positions has increased by 6 during the four-year period from 1992-1996, while male positions have decreased by 11. Females now hold 35.8% of the vice-principal positions, while males hold 64.2%. Over a four-year period, male department heads have declined by 17 and female department heads have increased by two. Principals, vice-principals, and departments heads positions total 642. Men hold 444 of those positions--one in every 4.2 male members of the NBTA. Women hold 198 of the positions--one in every 17.8 female members of the NBTA.

Conclusions

When one scans the Review of Literature, one notes commentaries reflective of the closing of the gender gap, of the movements women have made into positions of educational administration, of various programs available such as affirmative action, leadership training, assessment centres, and of suggestions that women should have mentors. The four years represented in this study, however, indicate very little movement toward gender equity and support the contention that if the current rate continues, it will be well into the 21 century before women experience substantial gains in representation in positions of educational administration.

As reported by Young (1994), "the statistics tend to support contentions that systemic discrimination, subtly reinforced and rationalized by traditional socialization, continues to be a major factor in the under-representation of women in Canadian school administration" (p. 357). This could be one explanation for the results of this study of NBTA membership in New Brunswick. Seay and Chance (1995-96) report that "women are in the majority as far as employment in public education institutions; however, the number diminishes as they progress up the hierarchical administrative structure" (p. 47). Again, this is reflected in the statistics furnished on the NBTA membership in New Brunswick.

As a result of the information presented in this study, the researcher suggests the following areas require further research:

(a) are socialization, attitudinal, and affective factors adversely affecting women's movement into educational administration

(b) are women obtaining the training necessary for positions in educational administration and, if so, why is the gender gap not diminishing with more rapidity

(c) do the statistics reflecting gender and educational administrative positions from the Francophone educational sector of the province of New Brunswick reveal the same results as that reported in this study from the Anglophone sector

(d) what is required for women to enter administrative positions of responsibility in greater numbers than currently indicated; what factors, if any, propel women upward into educational administration; what factors, if any, prevent women from moving into positions of educational administration

The literature indicates women currently have more educational administrative training, are entering graduate programs in greater numbers, are obtaining the necessary qualifications for administrative positions, and have the interest in career mobility. If these circumstances are indeed reflective of the composite of women teachers, there must be other factors which are keeping the glass ceiling in tact. It would appear that glass ceiling is receiving some hairline cracks; however, one ponders what it would take to completely break that ceiling making the term "gender gap" an expression for the archives.

Table 1
Positions of Responsibility
NBTA Members
1995-1996

POSITION	TOTAL	MALES	PERCENTAGE	FEMALES	PERCENTAGE
Principal	260	186	71.5	74	28.5
Vice Principal	215	138	64.2	77	35.8
Department Head	167	120	71.9	47	28.1
Guidance Counsellor	106	52	49.1	54	50.9
Subject Coordinator	18	13	72.2	5	27.8
Superintendent	12	9	75.0	3	25.0
Assistant Superintendent	18	15	83.3	3	16.7
School Supervisor	57	39	68.4	18	31.6

Note: Total Number 853
Total Males 572 (67.1%)
Total Females 281 (32.9%)

Table 2
Proportion of Gender by Position of Responsibility
NBTA Members
1992-1993

POSITION	MALES	FEMALES
Principals	.80	.20
Vice Principals	.68	.32
Department Heads	.75	.25
Guidance Counsellors	.54	.46
Subject Coordinators	.54	.46
Superintendents	.75	.25
Assistant Superintendents	.81	.19
School Supervisors	.63	.37

Table 3
Proportion of Gender by Position of Responsibility
NBTA Members
1993-1994

POSITION	MALES	FEMALES
Principals	.75	.25
Vice Principals	.67	.33
Department Heads	.77	.23
Guidance Counsellors	.50	.50
Subject Coordinators	.56	.44
Superintendents	.75	.25
Assistant Superintendents	.81	.19
School Supervisors	.61	.39

Table 4
Proportion of Gender by Position of Responsibility
NBTA Members
1994-1995

POSITION	MALES	FEMALES
Principals	.74	.26
Vice Principals	.65	.35
Department Heads	.76	.24
Guidance Counsellors	.50	.50
Subject Coordinators	.50	.50
Superintendents	.75	.25
Assistant Superintendents	.81	.19
School Supervisors	.68	.32

Table 5
Proportion of Gender by Position of Responsibility
NBTA Members
1995-1996

POSITION	MALES	FEMALES
Principals	.72	.28
Vice Principals	.64	.36
Department Heads	.72	.28
Guidance Counsellors	.49	.51
Subject Coordinators	.72	.28
Superintendents	.75	.25
Assistant Superintendents	.83	.17
School Supervisors	.68	.32

Table 6
Proportion of Principals by Gender
NBTA Members
1992-1996

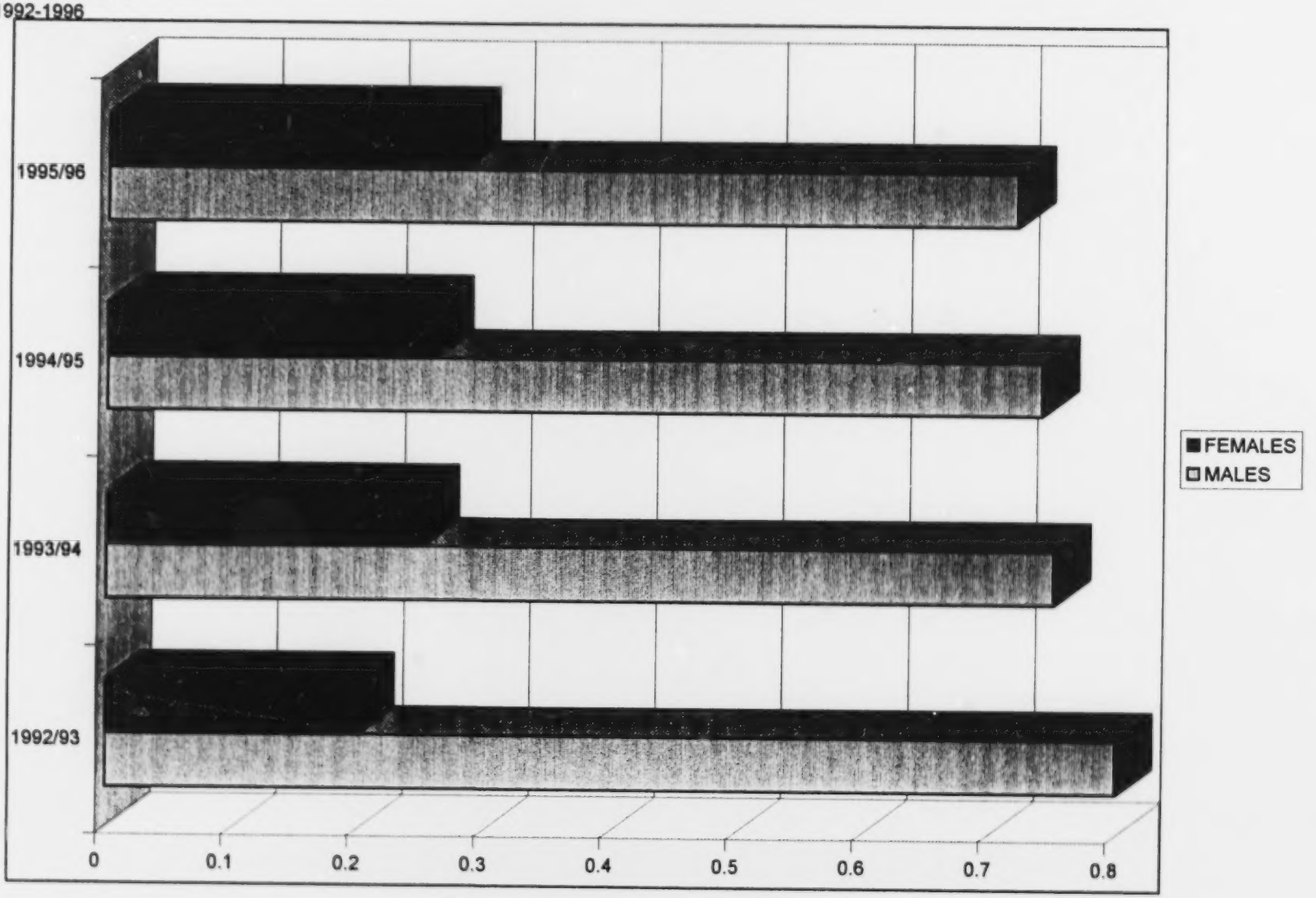

Table 7
Proportion of Vice Principals by Gender
NBTA Members
1992-1996

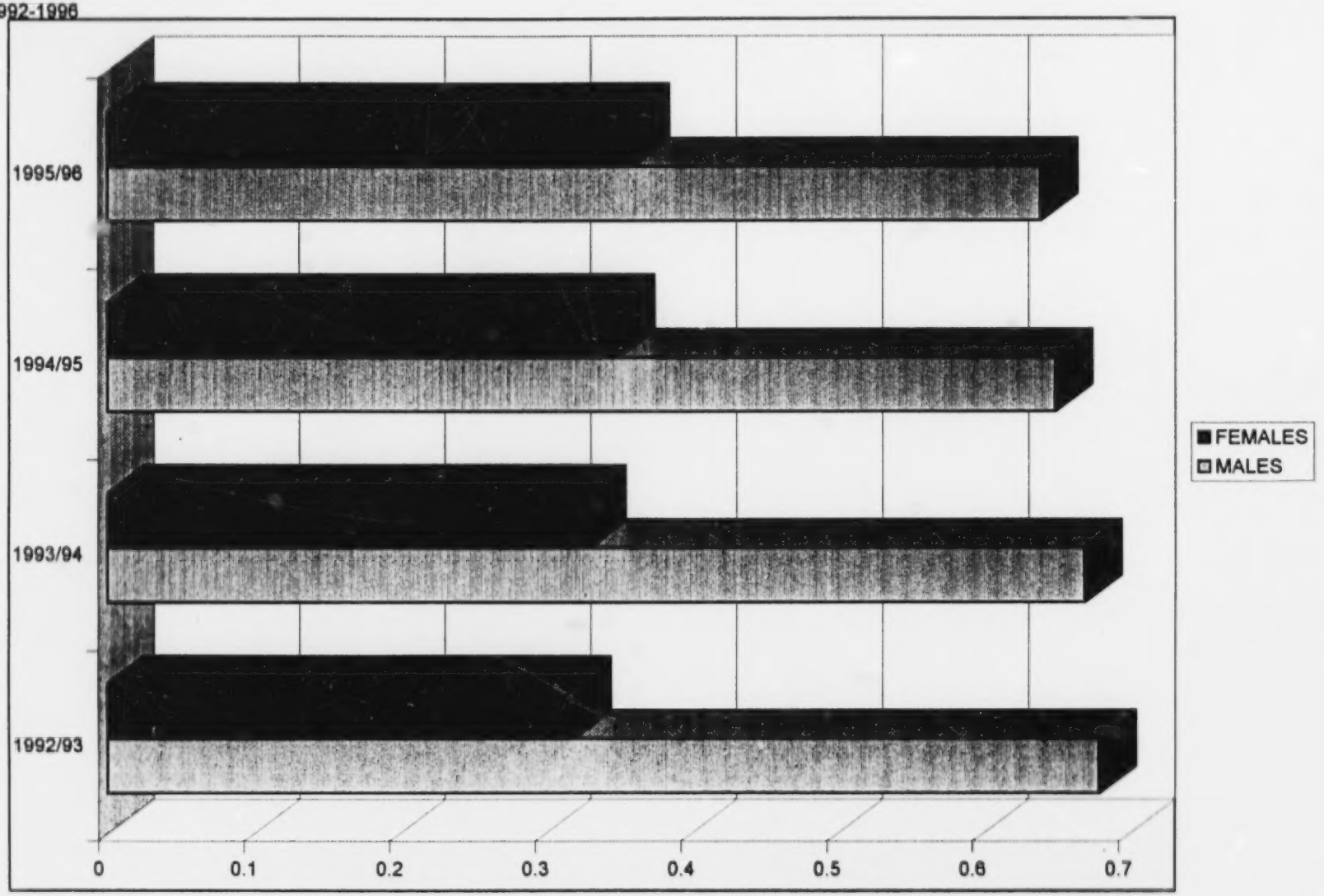

Table 8
Proportion of Department Heads by Gender
NBTA Members
1992-1996

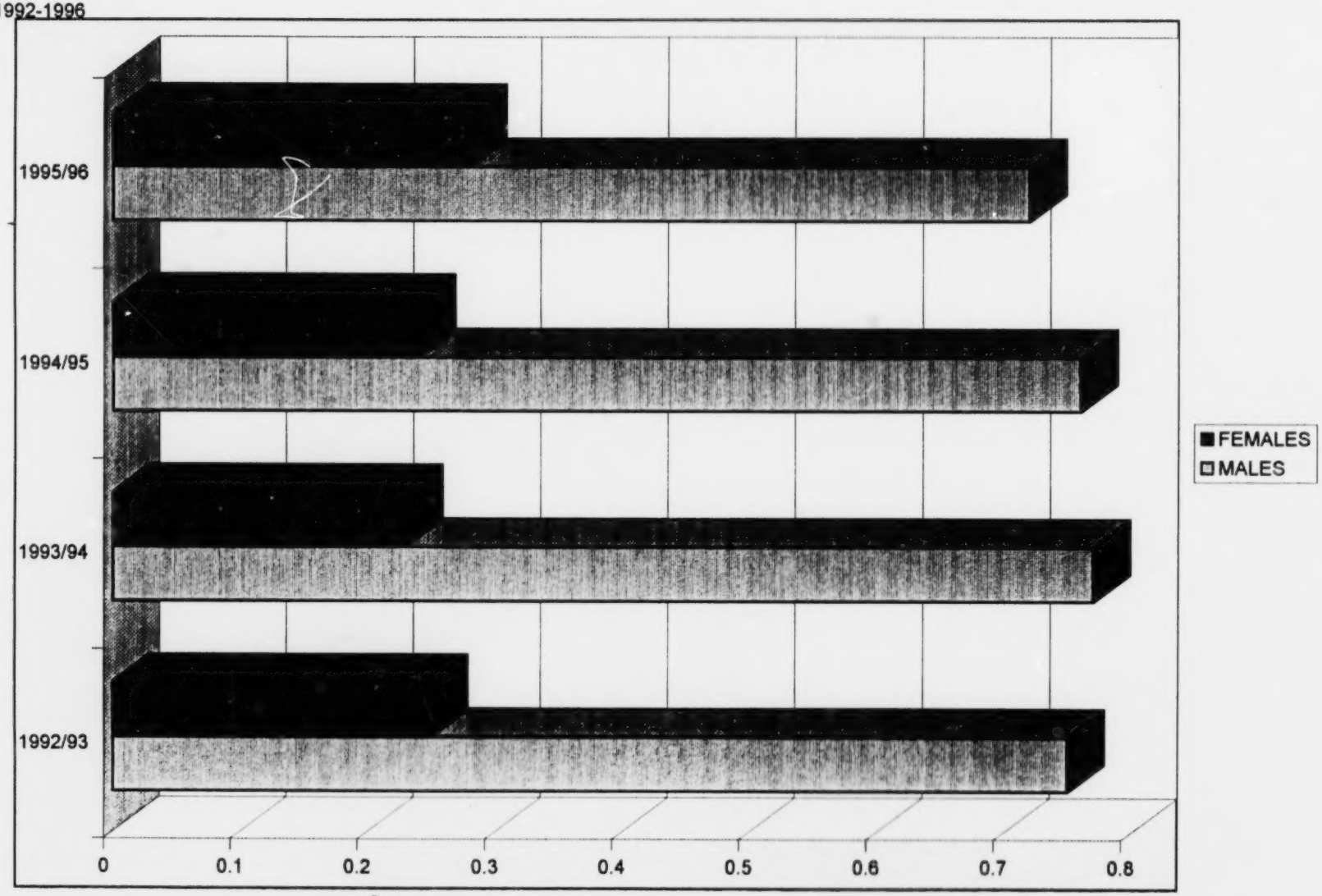

Table 9
Proportion of Guidance Counsellors by Gender
NBTA Members
1992-1996

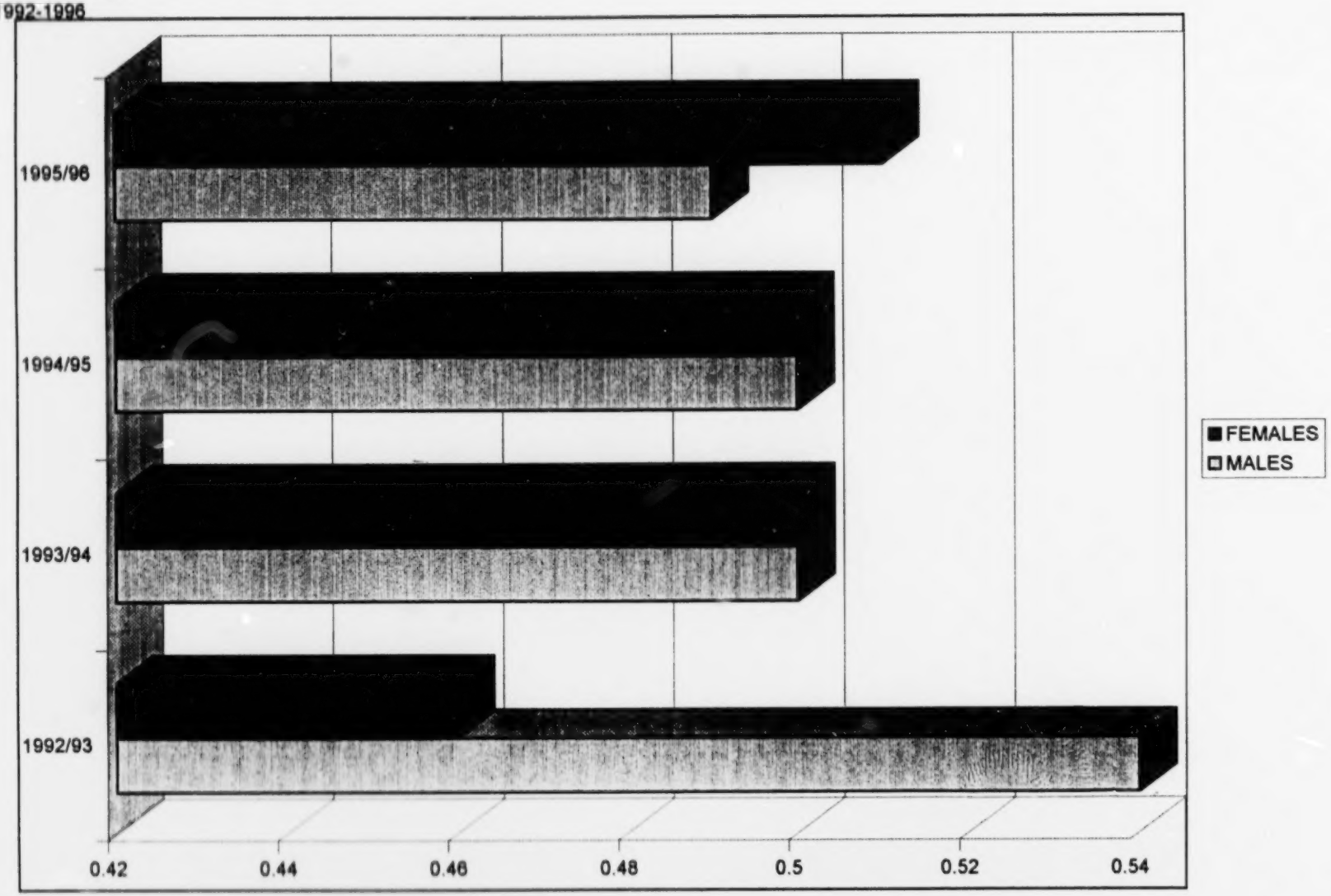

Table 10
Proportion of Subject Coordinators by Gender
NBTA Members
1992-1996

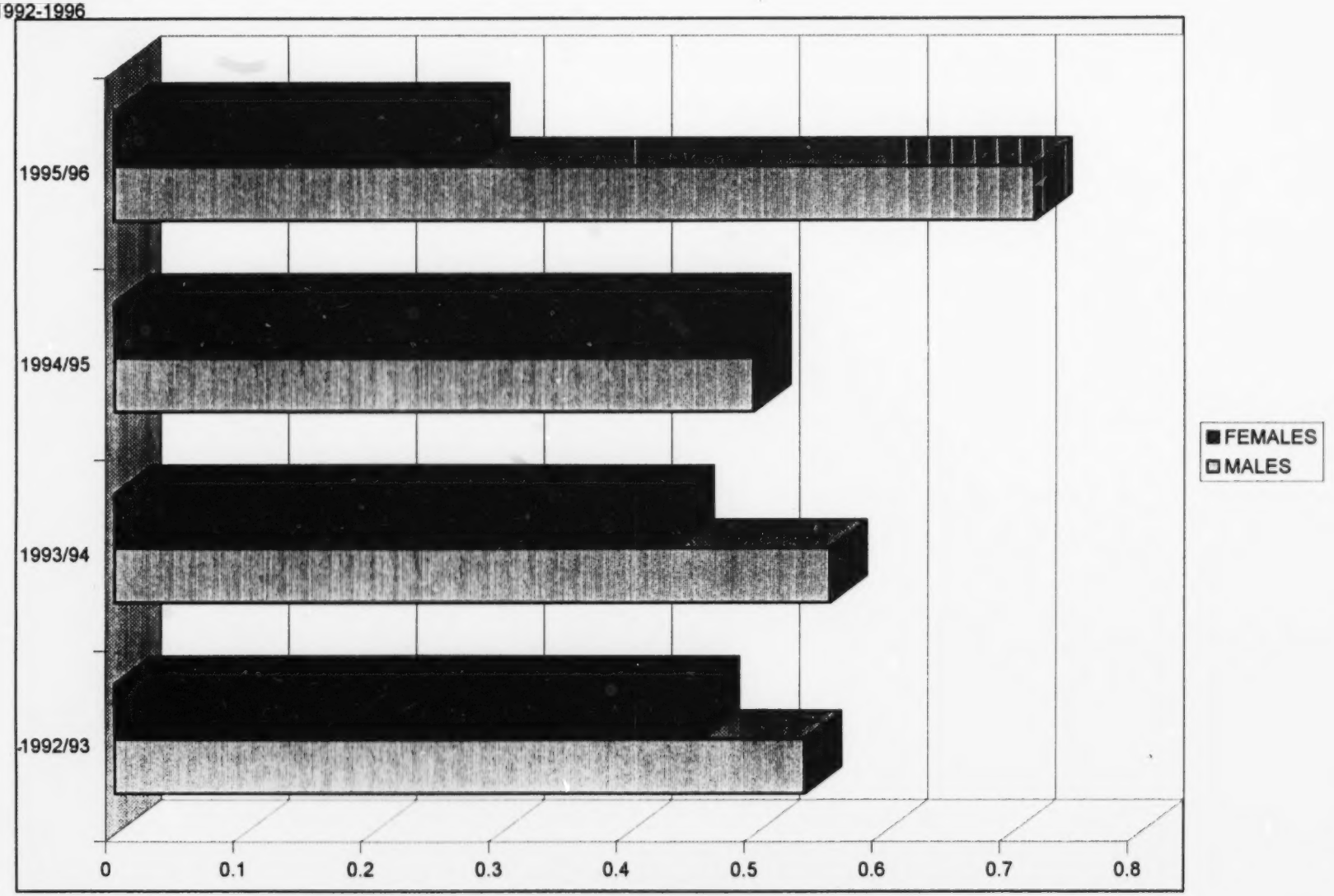

Table 11
Proportion of Superintendents by Gender
NBTA Members
1992-1996

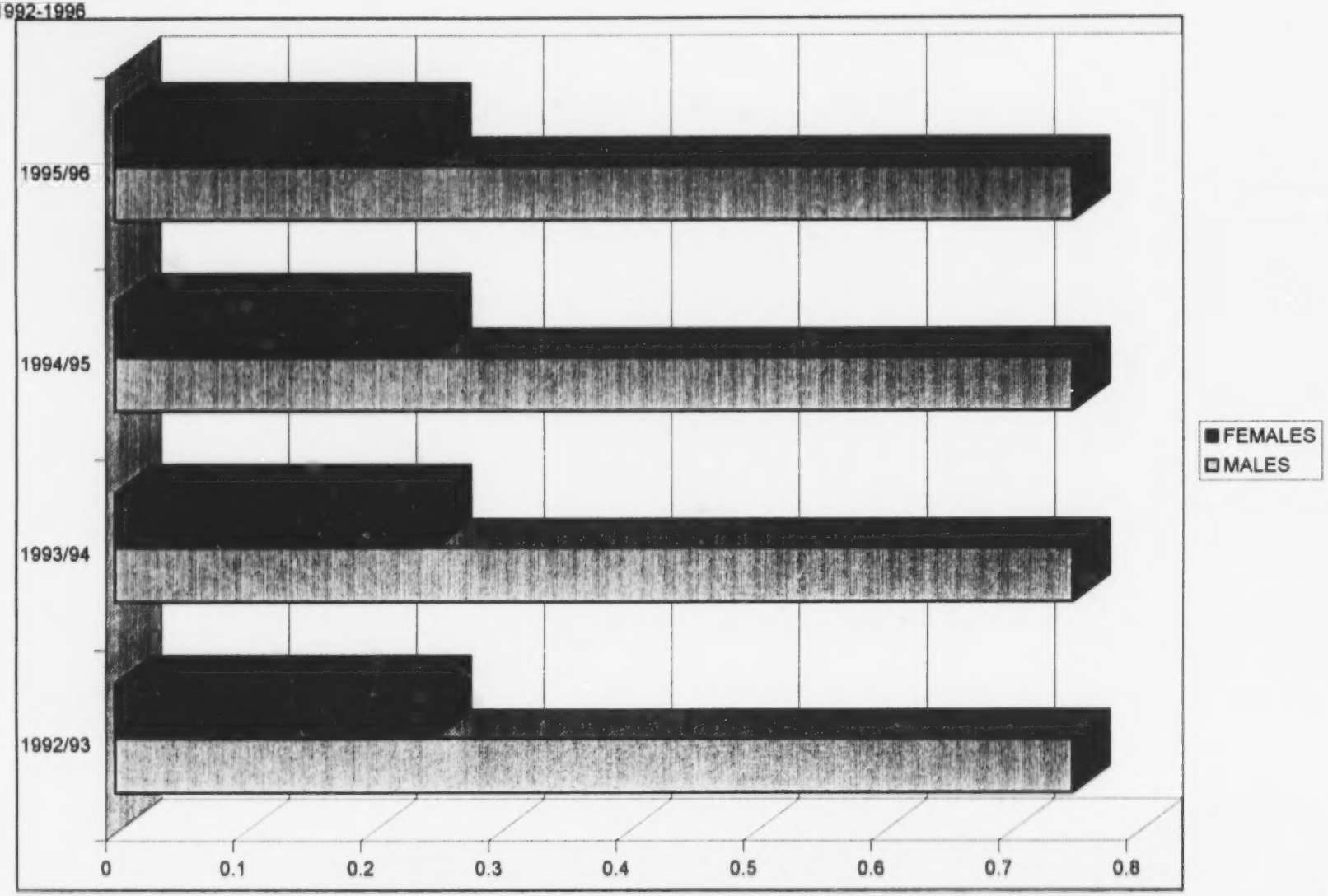

Table 12
Proportion of Assistant Superintendents by Gender
NBTA Members
1992-1996

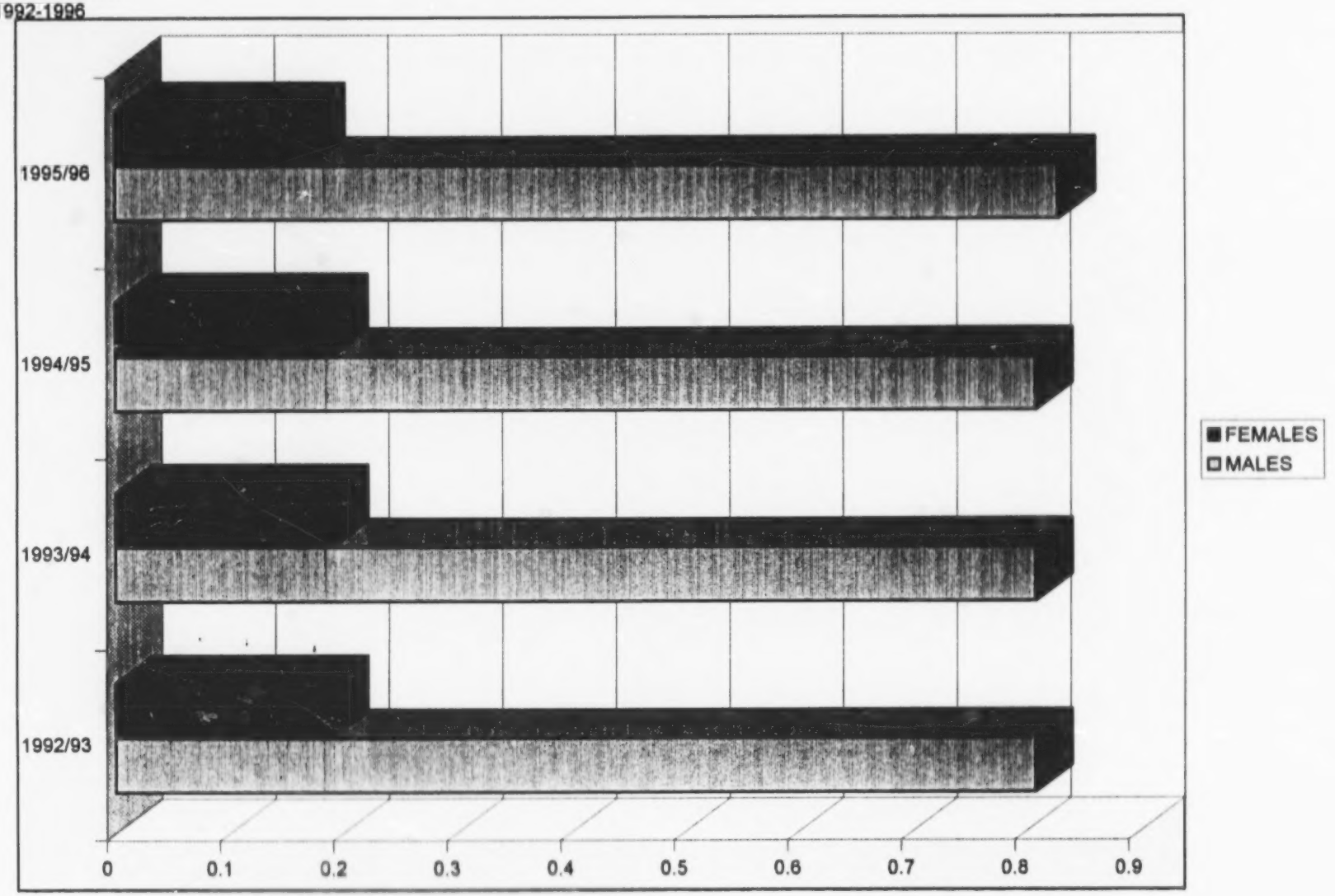

Table 13
Proportion of School Supervisors by Gender
NBTA Members
1992-1996

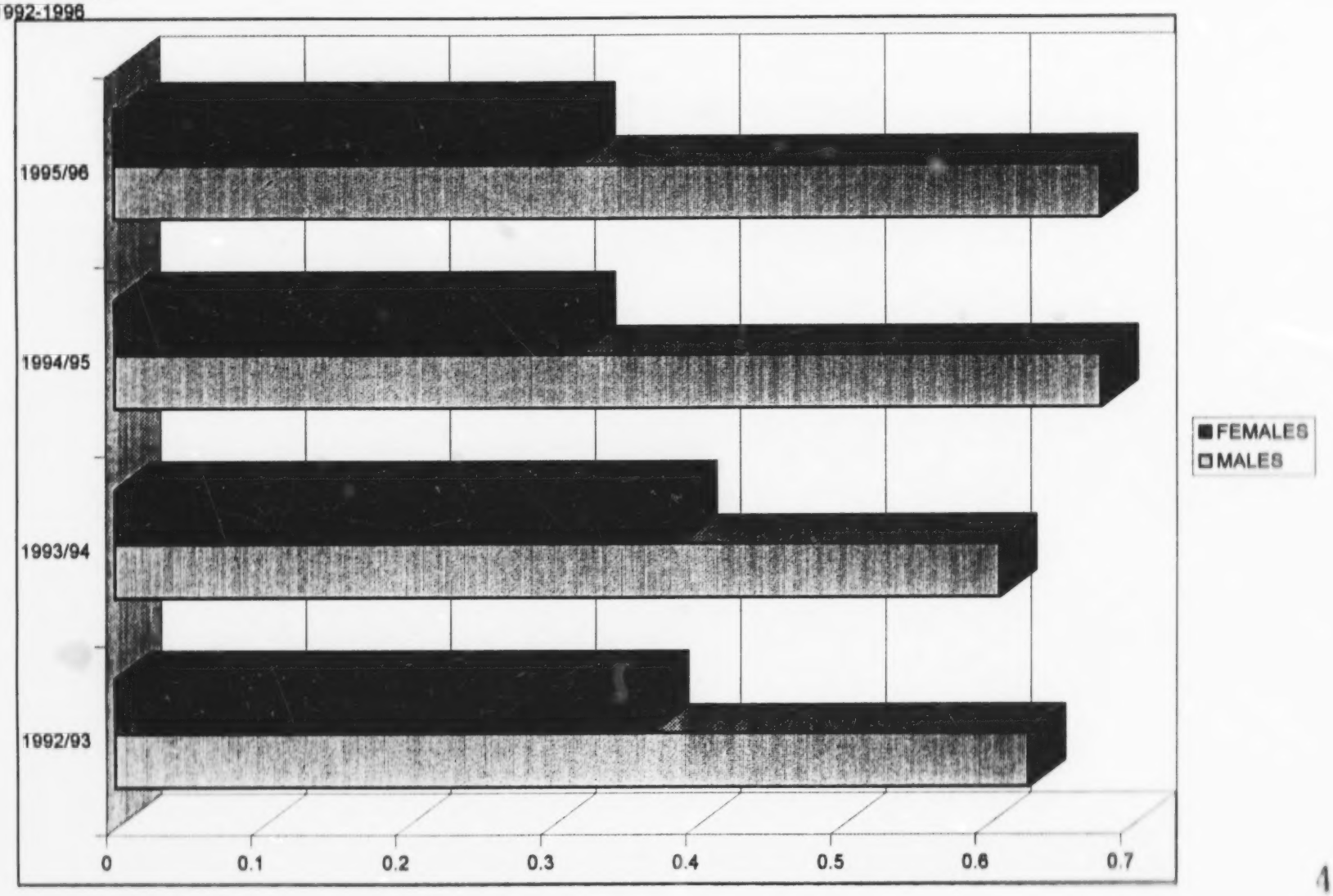

Table 14
Chi Square Contingency Table
NBTA Members
1995-1996

(row) POSITION	(column) GENDER	OBSERVED	EXPECTED	STANDARDIZED RESIDUAL
Principal	Male	186	174	0.8
Principal	Female	74	86	1.6
Vice Principal	Male	138	144	0.3
Vice Principal	Female	77	71	0.5
Department Head	Male	120	112	0.6
Department Head	Female	47	55	1.2
Guidance Counsellor	Male	52	71	5.1
Guidance Counsellor	Female	54	35	10.4
Subject Coordinator	Male	13	12	0.1
Subject Coordinator	Female	3	4	0.2
Superintendent	Male	9	8	0.1
Superintendent	Female	3	4	0.2
Assistant Superintendent	Male	15	12	0.7
Assistant Superintendent	Female	3	6	1.4
School Supervisor	Male	39	38	0.0
School Supervisor	Female	18	19	0.0

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Appendices

ACTIVE MEMBERSHIP REGISTRATION 1995-96
The New Brunswick Teachers' Association

ALL TEACHERS (INCLUDING LOCAL PERMITS) MUST FILL OUT THIS SIDE OF THIS SHEET TO REGISTER AS A MEMBER OF THE N.B.T.A. PLEASE RETURN IMMEDIATELY TO THE SCHOOL REPRESENTATIVE FOR FORWARDING TO THE N.B.T.A., P.O. BOX 752, FREDERICTON, N.B. E3B 5R6

CURRENT INFORMATION ON RECORD		PLEASE RECORD ANY CHANGE FOR 1995-96	
SURNAME / FIRST NAME / INITIAL		SURNAME / FIRST NAME / INITIAL	
MALE FEMALE MISS MRS. MR. OTHER - SPECIFY		MALE FEMALE MISS MRS. MR. OTHER - SPECIFY	
DATE OF BIRTH	DAY MONTH YEAR	DATE OF BIRTH	DAY MONTH YEAR
MAIDEN NAME		MAIDEN NAME	
NUMBERS	DISTRICT NO. ____ EMPLOYEE NO. ____ (FROM CHEQUE STUB)	NUMBERS	DISTRICT NO. ____ EMPLOYEE NO. ____ (FROM CHEQUE STUB)
HOME MAILING ADDRESS	NUMBER STREET TOWN POSTAL CODE	HOME MAILING ADDRESS	NUMBER STREET TOWN POSTAL CODE ** E-MAIL ADDRESS ____
NAME OF SCHOOL		NAME OF SCHOOL	
PHONE NUMBERS	HOME ____ SCHOOL ____	PHONE NUMBERS	HOME ____ SCHOOL ____ FAX ____
TEACHING POSITION	PRIN V PRIN DEPT HEAD SUB CO-ORD CLASSROOM TEACHER R & M OTHER SPECIFY	TEACHING POSITION	☐ PRIN ☐ SUB CO-ORD ☐ V-PRIN ☐ CLASSROOM TEACHER OTHER-SPECIFY ☐ DEPT. HEAD ☐ R + M
NUMBER OF TEACHERS SUPERVISED		NUMBER OF TEACHERS SUPERVISED	
STATUS (IF NOT IN SCHOOL)	ED LEAVE ☐ MATERNITY ☐ SICK LEAVE ☐ DEFERRED ☐ PRE-RET ☐ OVERSEAS ☐ SECONDED ☐ OTHER ____ UNPAID LEAVE ☐ EXPECTED DATE OF RETURN ____	STATUS (IF NOT IN SCHOOL)	ED LEAVE ☐ MATERNITY ☐ SICK LEAVE ☐ DEFERRED ☐ PRE-RET ☐ OVERSEAS ☐ SECONDED ☐ OTHER ____ UNPAID LEAVE ☐ EXPECTED DATE OF RETURN ____
% TIME EMPLOYED SCHOOL BOARD	50% ☐ 100% ☐ OTHER - SPECIFY ____	% OF TIME EMPLOYED BY SCHOOL BOARD	50% ☐ 100% ☐ OTHER - SPECIFY ____
MAJOR SUBJECT OR AREA TAUGHT	(IF FRENCH IMMERSION PLEASE SPECIFY)	MAJOR SUBJECT OR AREA TAUGHT	(IF FRENCH IMMERSION PLEASE SPECIFY)
GRADES TAUGHT		GRADES TAUGHT (CIRCLE)	K 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12
TYPE OF NEW BRUNSWICK LICENSE HELD (CHECK ONE)	SCHEDULE ☐ TEACHER'S LICENCE ☐ B ☐ C ☐ LETTER OF STANDING ☐ D ☐ E ☐ LOCAL PERMIT FROM ____ TO ____ REPLACING	TYPE OF NEW BRUNSWICK LICENSE HELD (CHECK ONE)	SCHEDULE ☐ TEACHER'S LICENCE ☐ B ☐ C ☐ LETTER OF STANDING ☐ D ☐ E ☐ LOCAL PERMIT FROM ____ TO ____ REPLACING
YEARS OF TEACHING EXPERIENCE IN N.B.	AS OF AUGUST 31, 1994	YEARS OF TEACHING EXPERIENCE IN N.B.	AS OF AUGUST 31, 1995
YEARS OF TEACHING EXPERIENCE OUTSIDE N.B.		YEARS OF TEACHING EXPERIENCE OUTSIDE N.B.	
CERTIFICATION LEVEL		CERTIFICATION LEVEL	
DEGREES	☐ BACHELOR ☐ MASTERS ☐ DOCTORATE ☐ CAUS ☐ DAUS ☐ OTHER	DEGREES	☐ BACHELOR ☐ MASTERS ☐ DOCTORATE ☐ CAUS ☐ DAUS ☐ OTHER
WERE YOU TEACHING IN JUNE AND SEPT 1995	YES ☐ NO ☐	WERE YOU TEACHING IN JUNE AND SEPT 1995	YES ☐ NO ☐
COUNCIL MEMBERSHIP PLEASE CHECK "ONE" ONLY	ART ☐ BUSINESS EDUCATION ☐ COMPUTER SERVICES ☐ ELEMENTARY ☐ ENGLISH ☐ FRENCH IMMERSION ☐ FRENCH 2ND LANGUAGE ☐ GUIDANCE ☐ HOME ECONOMICS ☐ INDUSTRIAL ARTS ☐ MATH ☐ MUSIC ☐ HEALTH & PHYSICAL EDUCATION ☐ PRINCIPALS & VICE-PRINCIPALS ☐ LIBRARY ☐ SCIENCE ☐ SPECIAL EDUCATION ☐ SOCIAL STUDIES ☐ TECHNICAL VOCATIONAL ☐	COUNCIL MEMBERSHIP PLEASE CHECK "ONE" ONLY	ART ☐ BUSINESS EDUCATION ☐ COMPUTER SERVICES ☐ ELEMENTARY (K-6) ☐ ENGLISH ☐ FRENCH IMMERSION ☐ FRENCH 2ND LANGUAGE ☐ GUIDANCE ☐ HOME ECONOMICS ☐ JUNIOR HIGH TECHNOLOGY ☐ MATH ☐ MUSIC ☐ HEALTH & PHYSICAL EDUCATION ☐ PRINCIPALS & VICE-PRINCIPALS ☐ LIBRARY ☐ SCIENCE ☐ SPECIAL EDUCATION ☐ SOCIAL STUDIES ☐ TECHNICAL VOCATIONAL ☐

NOTE: IF YOU WISH TO JOIN ADDITIONAL COUNCILS – CONTACT THE APPROPRIATE COUNCIL SECRETARY.

DATE ____ SIGNATURE ____